VOLUME VII NUMBER 6

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

FEBRUARY, 1907

PLAN FOR OFFICIAL ADVISORY ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING FORCE OF CHICAGO[1]

REPORT OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE OF THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO, APPOINTED TO TAKE INTO CONSIDERATION AND REPORT UPON THE WHOLE SUBJECT OF AN ADVISORY ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING BODY, SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AT ITS MEETING, FRIDAY, DECEMBER 28, 1906

To the School Management Committee of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago:

Your subcommittee appointed to take into consideration and report upon the whole subject of an advisory organization of the teaching body respectfully reports as follows:

I. Your committee finds that under existing conditions the Board of Education and the teaching body are as widely separated for consultative and freely co-operative purposes as if they had no educational interests or duty in common. For the teachers are inarticulate as a body, and the board, compelled to act without their direct advice and only upon reports of official intermediaries, is forced into the position of governing by the mere right of its legal authority and often in ignorance of matters regarding which the teachers would be its best advisers. This is manifestly detrimental. It tends especially to lessen the effectiveness of the teachers in their school-work, by destroying in them that spirit of co-operation which is vital to a homogeneous school system.

[1] From the *Chicago Teachers' Federation Bulletin*, January 4, 1907.

II. Even if it were true that all goodness and wisdom in affairs educational dwell in the school authorities, the fact remains that in the end their decrees must be executed by the teachers. It is the teachers, after all, and not boards, committees, or superintendents, that must be depended upon to give vitality to public-school education. Their cordial co-operation is therefore essential.

And inasmuch as teachers are neither soulless machines to be despotically manipulated by masterhands, nor soldiers with no other function than unquestioning obedience, nor mechanical producers of the inanimate commodities of the factory, but are the personal guardians and guides of the children they teach, and come into more intimate relations with these wards of the public school than anyone else in the system, their hearty and intelligent co-operation in promoting the educational policies of the board is not to be secured by methods of management which are or seem to them to be despotic. If they feel the weight of despotic hands, the less assertive among them will cringe in their official intercourse with superiors in authority, and be despotic in turn in their official intercourse with subordinates. Thus perpetuating itself, the despotic or decree-promulgating policy must inevitably react upon the pupils, tending to turn some of them into little learning machines and others into little rebels, instead of making eager students of all.

In the opinion of your committee, the teaching force must be sympathetically considered and trusted. If they are to do their best for the children, the teachers must be consulted about educational policies—not now and then and here and there, as real or apparent favorites of superiors in authority, but as a body of educators organically recognized by the board and its employees. Their cordial acquiescence in the wisdom, justice, and sincerity of the policies they are called upon to promote must be secured, or their work will fall short of its highest possibilities. In the nature of things, this acquiescence cannot be secured either by preventing discussion or by ignoring recommendations. To prevent discussion irritates; to ignore the results of discussion is disheartening. The important thing is not that the recom-

mendations of the teacher shall be adopted by the board regardless of their merits, but that they shall be considered in good faith upon their merits.

III. One of the most important steps, therefore, which, in the opinion of your committee, the board ought to take, is the organization of the teachers into an official consultative and advisory body.

There is no implication here, nor have we learned satisfactorily of any demand from any source, that the teaching body should govern the superintendent or the board, or in any manner dictate to either. What is in principle proposed is (1) that the responsibility of legislative authority and final control should be reposed in the board; (2) that the responsibility of administrative authority and advisory direction should be reposed in the superintendent; and (3) that advisory authority and responsibility on educational subjects, and the relation of the teaching body to the school system, should be vested in the teaching body. And the teaching body in its advisory capacity, should it be thus organized, should have the fullest parliamentary freedom of expression. The common-sense of the teachers, far better than arbitrary rules or decrees from their superiors, would soon indicate to them the proper limitations of subject-matter for their discussion.

IV. The value of such an organization is obvious. The lack of it is a manifest detriment to the school system in many ways.

In the matter of the selection of school readers, for example, we have already had an instructive exemplification of the unwisdom of not having an authorized method of securing the advice of the teaching body on important questions regarding the work in which they and the board are in common engaged. When authoritative pedagogical advice was needed on this subject, a recommendation by a jury of teachers selected by the superintendent, whose names were kept secret from the board, and whose verdict was transmitted by the superintendent with only perfunctory approval, was the only method available. In saying this we condemn no one. It was the result of a system which should be changed.

We regard an authoritative organization of the teachers for consultative and advisory purposes, with reference to pedagogical subjects and their own relation to the school system, as an immediate necessity for the best interests of the public-school children.

V. This idea of an official organization of the teaching force for advisory purposes has long been urged by the Chicago Teachers' Federation—one of the most useful civic and educational organizations of the city—as a fundamental method of harmonizing and increasing the efficiency of all parts of the school system. It was approved in principle in 1900 by the executive committee of one hundred citizens organized by another civic body of Chicago, the Civic Federation, in a recommendation of an advisory school faculty which should represent all grades of teachers, from principals to kindergarten teachers, by delegates chosen on some established basis. Its value is recognized by the educational committee of the Charter Convention. It has, moreover, had the approval of some of the most distinguished educators of the United States; not only such as are accounted radical, but also such as are accounted conservative.

VI. [NOTE BY THE EDITORS.—Section VI embodies quotations from the leading educational authorities in the country, showing the need for representation, and giving their sanction to it. This section is omitted from lack of space.]

VII. Your committee therefore recommends the adoption of the following resolutions:

WHEREAS, The full power and responsibility for legislative, judicial, and executive action within the school system, now reposed by law in the Board of Education, should be intelligently and faithfully maintained, and no part thereof should be surrendered to any employee or employees of the board; and,

WHEREAS, The superintendent ought to have full power and responsibility for executive administration on the educational side, as the servant of the board, together with advisory power and responsibility relative to all its legislative, executive, and judicial functions; and,

WHEREAS, The teaching force ought to be so organized

officially as to invest it with advisory power and responsibility relative to executive, judicial, and legislative action, whether upon its own initiative or in response to requests from the superintendent or the board; and,

WHEREAS, A realization of these principles in practice is necessary to secure the best service from the superintendent and the teaching force, and to enable the board to perform its functions in the most intelligent and effective manner; and,

WHEREAS, The superintendent's assistance and advice are already available to the board at all times, but the necessary organization of the teaching body remains yet to be effected;

Therefore, to the end that the advice of the teachers as well as that of the superintendent may be available, and that complete and cordial co-operation of the board, the superintendent, and the teaching body may may be thereby established;

Resolved, That "The Educational Councils" of the Chicago public schools be, and they are hereby, invited to submit to the Board of Education a revised constitution for the purpose of placing the teaching body of the Chicago public-school system into direct advisory relations with the board;

Resolved, That it is the sense of the Board of Education that the basic principles of such revision should be along the following lines:

1. All teachers and principals in actual service should be *ipso facto* members of the council of their respective schools.

2. District Councils and the Central Council should be formed by representation from the respective School Councils.

3. Provision should be made for advisory or other co-operation with the councils in their deliberations, of the superintendent and other officials on the educational side, analogous to that which exists between the superintendent and the board.

4. Provision should be made for separate expression of opinion and action when desired, on the part of the high-school councils, of elementary-school councils, of principals, of specialty instructors, and of the grade teachers and high-school teachers, as distinct departments of or bodies within the councils.

5. Rules of order should be adopted for convenient and

appropriate consideration and action by the councils upon any question for the purpose of advising the board, whether at the request of the board or upon their own initiative; and,

Resolved, That, pending the above suggested revision of their constitution, the aforesaid "The Educational Councils" be, and they are hereby, officially recognized by the Board of Education as an official advisory organization of the teaching body.

Respectfully submitted

CORNELIA D. DE BEY, M.D., *Chairman*

REPORT ON SOME CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE BEITRÄGE ZUR PSYCHOLOGIE DER AUSSAGE

HENDRIK BOSMA
Chicago

The *Beiträge zur Psychologie der Aussage* is a German periodical magazine, edited by William Stern and a few other psychologists, among whom is the foremost psychologist of the Netherlands, Professor Heymans, of Groningen. The German word *aussage* means "to state, declare, report," and the *Psychologie der Aussage* is concerned with questions like these: Suppose a man on the witness-stand makes, even under oath, certain statements, how much of what he swears to be facts are we to believe? Or, suppose a newspaper man writes a report of an accident or event, how much of what he writes may we accept as true, granted that he has done his utmost to be as exact as possible?

To solve these questions several experiments have been made by various investigators: Stern experimented with 35 children of an elementary public school; Rosa Oppenheim, exclusively with 30 girls; Max Lobsien, with 4 classes of girls and 5 classes of boys; Rodewaldt, with 50 hospital soldiers.

Stern took from the lowest, the middle, and the upper grades two backward, two mediocre, and two bright pupils and led them, one at a time, into an empty schoolroom, where for one minute each had to look at the picture of a room in a farmer's house. Then the picture was taken away and the child had to report what it had seen. Afterward, 73 questions, previously written out, had to be answered: 4 referred to persons; 26, to things; 5, to activities of persons; 9, to localities; 18, to colors; 11, to qualities and numbers. Besides there were 12 *suggestive* questions, i.e., questions as to things that do not exist. Nine and a half weeks later the children were asked the same questions, without the picture being shown them.

The other investigators' experiments were not exactly like this, yet the general plan was the same.

Compare the following results:

	Percentage of Mistakes	
	In Reports	In Answers to Questions
Stern	6%	33%
Oppenheim	5	33–34
Rodewaldt	6	32–33

The experiments showed that no one reports without mistake, and that the *Merkfähigkeit,* the power of perceiving, increases with age; that a *spontaneous report without mistakes is not the rule, but the exception;* and that, even when people take an oath that certain statements are correct, the fact is that they make 10 per cent. mistakes. Those who will not swear make 20 per cent. As the above table indicates, in general, *the answers to questions contain four times as many mistakes as the reports.* From this we may conclude that for the sake of truth no person on the witness-stand should be interrupted by questions, and that it is wiser for the teacher to let the pupil say what he knows than to confuse him with many detailed questions. In reporting, a person disposes freely of his mental stock. What is clearest is reproduced. Images that are just beneath the threshold of consciousness are dragged up to the surface along with it.

Suggestibility.—To measure the suggestibility, Stern and Rodewaldt asked twelve, Oppenheim ten, questions with reference to non-existing things: for instance, "Is there not a stove in the room?" "What about the glasses on the table?" Of the answers to normal questions Stern found 66 per cent. to be right; of those to the *suggestive* questions, only 59 per cent. Rodewaldt had only 47.3 per cent. good answers to the latter.

Netschajew, of the Pedagogical Laboratory at St. Petersburg, experimented in the following way: He gave the pupils of all classes a sheet of paper and a pencil, and, after they had written down their grade, age, and name, he directed: "As soon as I have said *now,* write down some number; for example, 8;"

or, "Write a sentence on anything you like; for example, music." This experiment was carried out in all classes at the same time. The papers were collected, and it was found that many pupils had written down the figure 8 and a sentence with the word *music* in it. But there were some also who had put down 7 or 9; others had given a number containing 8, as 28, 18, 108, and 198; and their sentences were not exactly on music, but on something associated with music, as: "I like to play the violin."

In general, the experiments made clear that the younger the pupils, the more they follow *direct suggestions;* and that, as they grow older and become more masters of themselves, the ego begins to assert itself. That they are going to have a mind of their own is shown in their greater liability to *indirect suggestions.* The Russian experimenter's figures show that *pupils in the age of puberty follow more indirect than direct suggestions* (23–11 per cent.).

Discontinuity of mental development.—Extensive dynamometric experiments by Schuyten, of Antwerp, have shown that the energy of attention steadily increases from October on, is abundant until March, and then diminishes, reaching its low-water mark in July. The power of attention notably diminishes during the late spring and summer months, but muscular power increases in a remarkable way up to June or July. This is true both for girls and boys.

Stern's experiments show, not only that there is a *distinct discontinuity of development,* but also that *it is not the same in boys as in girls.* With girls between seven and ten years the extensiveness of knowledge—as shown by spontaneous reports and answers to questions—increases but little; the fidelity (percentage of *exact* problems) even decreases. Between the age of 10 and 15 both increase strongly. Boys are at their best between 7.3 and 11 years. After this, the increase as to extensity and exactness is comparatively little. Boys report more than girls; yet the girls are more exact in their reports. This does not increase with age. Boys and girls of 7 years made 6 per cent. mistakes; the pupils of a seminary, soldiers, and univer-

sity students made as many. As to the extensiveness, the sum-total, of their statements we find:

Girls of lowest grade report 12.6% of the facts
Girls of highest grade report 29.8% of the facts
Boys of lowest grade report 15.2% of the facts
Boys of seminarian grade report 39.5% of the facts

The *Merkfähigkeit* (power of perception) *is also a function that is capable of progressive development.*

From these investigations we may conclude that a child is not a small adult, and that mental development is more an additive than a proportional process.

The reports and answers contained many categories: persons, things, actions, and qualities. Development does not proceed in a way that the younger children answer of each category a few elements, and the older pupils perceive of each category many elements. No, the fact is: the younger children report *few*, the older *many*, categories. Children 7 years old mentioned spontaneously only *persons* and *things*.

Interest.—Girls report more personal categories, boys more those related to things. *Persons and their actions form one-third of the total reports of the girls; with boys, it is one-fourth.* The girls of the middle grades are most interested in the doings of persons. With boys this stage lies between the lower and middle grades. Girls remain longer in the stage of attending to persons, things, and actions; boys reach sooner the stage of quality and relation. Colors and qualities were mentioned last. This is strange, as the colors on the pictures were very conspicuous. It is evidently not the vividness of a sensory impression that determines the choice of perception, but *interest*. With reference to interest, knowledge, and exactness in stating colors, the girls proved to be far behind the boys.

It is perhaps unwise at the present moment to draw from these investigations practical pedagogical deductions. As far as the experiments have been carried on, they plead against coeducation, and it would seem that teaching which is of a theoretical nature does not appeal very much to the girls. "Only a teacher," says a German educator, "who by his or her person-

ality can greatly influence the girl may have results. The girl more than the boy is inclined to ask: 'How does the subject-matter affect my personal life?' Her courses of study, therefore, should be practical."

Safer inferences are these:

1. Questions of detail make a report worse.

2. The ordinary question has suggestive influence; the more so a suggestive question; and still more so when the questioner indicates what he thinks. ("Was not the dress blue?")

3. It is better to ask in this way: "Is among these persons or things the particular person or object?" than: "Is not this the man, the coat, etc?"

4. It is of importance to know whether a statement is spontaneous or an answer to a question. If the latter, how was the question put? "La question forme avec la réponse un tout indivisible."

5. The value of a statement *(Aussage)* also depends on what others have said, or the press has written. Especially the printed word is suggestive—a man on the witness-stand is often influenced by his daily paper.

6. In general, only those statements of events and things which a person attended to without strong emotional effects can be trusted. The results with descriptions of an action, of a process, are better than those of a locality or a space. The mind is less attracted by outward appearances and colors than by movements. Strong emotions tend to exaggeration.

7. Lapses of time under five minutes are almost invariably overrated and the more so the shorter the time. There is no tendency for over- and underrating times between five and ten minutes. Times over ten minutes are usually undervalued, although not much.

These conclusions were made by Otto Lipman, and are based on his own experiments as well as on those of Stern and others. For the teacher they may probably have practical value; but, above all, judges, lawyers, and members of a jury should take notice of them.

A REVISION OF THE RUDIMENTS AS CONCERNING NATURE-STUDY

WALTER J. KENYON
State Normal School, San Francisco, Cal.

The biographers of great men appear to take a mischievous delight in showing how their subjects came up through the period of childhood virtually untutored in those studies which pass with us as the essentials of education. We learn that George Stephenson at the age of eighteen could not read; and that at nineteen he was able "to sign his name, in a good round hand." Yet, by one shift or another, he managed finally to loom large in the pages of history as one of the world's considerable figures in the field of science.

Georg Ebers is said to have been withheld by his mother from a study of printed words until his tenth year, the interim being dedicated to a free wandering among studios and craftsmen's shops, or wherever knowledge might be absorbed at first hand. Yet this Ebers figures later in life as a man of famous erudition, the great Egyptologist.

The statesman Elihu Washburn, surnamed "the Watchdog of the Treasury," as early as his seventh year was making himself generally useful on a New England farm. Says his biographer: "He went to school for a few weeks in winter and again for a few weeks in summer, but, as may be imagined, he learned very little."

Peter Cooper "attended school only two quarters, altogether." His childhood was a constant struggle for existence. Most of it was taken up, in dehairing rabbit skins in his father's hat factory.

Sir Isaac Newton, says a biographer, "at the age of twelve showed little taste for study, and managed easily to stand at the foot of his class." This poor showing, however, was evidently

occasioned, not by idleness, but by his constant preoccupation in various mechanical conceits.

In the case of Abraham Lincoln his very struggles for book-learning reveal how desultory must have been his early acquisitions, and how wholly innocent his period of actual childhood must have been of that formal knowledge which is the chief concern of our elementary school; and, conversely, how his early boyhood must have been passed in those unorthodox employments and experiences which go unrecognized by the accepted course of study.

Further inquiry discovers a similar hiatus, of greater or less degree, in the boyhood of Herbert Spencer, James Watt Whittier, Howells, and U. S. Grant. And the inference is that these cases, selected at haphazard, are typical of a great number of others.

The question then arises: If so many of these typically successful men of history came up through childhood with the merest smattering of letters and numbers, in many instances acquired in a most desultory fashion, just what were those other and major factors which must have entered into their early education, to bear so ample a fruition in the later life?

The inquiry thus gravitates into a question of the rudiments. And this, in turn, hinges upon our interpretation of life. All schoolmen seem to agree that (*a*) the school should prepare for life, and that (*b*) the elementary courses of study should deal exclusively with the rudiments. But there appears to be no agreement as to what constitutes life, nor as to what studies may properly be enumerated as rudiments.

Our public-school tradition has ever held stolidly to the idea that life is summed up in vocation, and too often vocation is by the same estimate interpreted as shopkeeping. From such a basis the deduction is easily made that the list of rudiments is complete in the three R's.

Against this sordid tradition innovators have ever arisen, and will arise, whose thesis is that life is something more than vocation, and that therefore the group of rudiments reputed directly

to serve vocation may not be accepted as a complete inventory, provided the school is really to prepare for life.

This more liberal interpretation of the school's responsibilities conceives life as including five general phases, ranking as co-ordinate and indispensable factors, and exhibiting claims upon the public school which cannot be repudiated except by sheer evasion. These five phases are: (1) the physical or creature life; (2) the intellectual or psychic life; (3) the home life; (4) the civic or community life; and (5) the vocational life. Each of these implies certain rudiments of study directly appropriate to itself, although they indirectly serve the others also. A complete list of these co-ordinate rudiments would seem to be: physical culture;[1] nature-study (of an extensive but not intensive order, as hereinafter indicated); music; history, literature, and civics; geography; manual arts; domestic economy; arithmetic (in a diminished proportion); and formal language (without grammar).

Our caption calls for the discussion of only one of these rudiments; and the foregoing remarks have been necessary in an attempt to orientate this subject of nature-study in the general scheme of elementary instruction.

As regards the direct aim of nature-study, I should say it is: *to inform the growing mind with innumerable sense-products, which shall now and later afford an adequate basis for intellection.*

These sense-products are variously called by psychologists "sense-percepts," "elementary ideas," etc. I have no wish to become defendant in a wrangle over terminology, so let us agree upon the exact nature of these sense-products by citing examples: they include all the objective phases which function in our nouns, adjectives, and verbs; and all of the external situations whence arise our figures of speech. Thus, "green," "warm," "sweet," "heavy," "brittle;" "rise," "expand," "glow," "freeze," "grind;" "iron," "apple," "shovel," and so on, *ad infinitum,* as unnumbered as the fish in the sea. We say that "Mr. So-and-so is in buoyant spirits today." But these words can function in the

[1] Including attention by the school authorities to sanitation and hygiene.

mind of the hearer only as he has witnessed the suspension of a cork in the water or a balloon in the air. Now, this observation of the cork or the balloon is nature-study. Out of such observations, repeated without number and in infinite variety, we amass our intellectual small coin in which all the affairs of the mind are transacted. And let us observe again that the first step in the whole process is nature-study, and the first activity is sense-activity.

These sense-products, then, as innumerable as the leaves of the forest, are the currency of the mind, those units of imagery in the total absence of which no intellection could proceed. Absolutely our whole vocabulary functions directly or indirectly in them, and they instruct our every conscious act. In copious supply and intricate relationships they lie at call in the antechambers of the mind, instantly ready to come before the footlights into the focus of consciousness. The barren mind is barren in the degree of its poverty of this elemental equipment. No man can come to Shakspere, or Milton. or the Bible, with appreciation and understanding, except as he is richly equipped with these elements of imagery.

This raw stuff of the imagination we must have, in no restricted measure, if we are to be numbered as sentient human beings. And it must exhibit those well-ordered relationships which facilitate judgment and choice. The raw stuff must not only be there, but it must also be mobilized with a degree of readiness that is brought about only through much use. Such a power has the artist, the poet, the general, the acrobat, the captain of industry, the statesman—each of them, as we say, "a man of imagination."

As to the origin of these elements of imagery there are just two possibilities: either we possess them as a heritage at birth, or we must acquire them by an untrammeled sense-activity continuing at least throughout the period of childhood. And this activity needs an exceeding range, but no particular intensiveness. The nature-study in vogue at present tends, I think, to reverse this proportion, through studies which are insignificant in their scope and, on the other hand, unprofitably logical and

intensive. If we believe, with Comenius, in this connection, that "there can be nothing in the understanding which was not first in the senses," then it becomes our most immediate concern to consider by what means and method this mental stock may be most liberally secured to the pupil. Our public-school children do not finger enough substances with a discriminating touch; they do not gaze observantly upon enough colors and forms, and physical and chemical changes; they do not listen, in a conscious discrimination, to enough sounds; they do not lift enough weights, or constrain enough resisting bodies. We try to substitute the cold type of textbooks and readers for this foundation platform of sense-products. But the books are useless until an apperceptive basis of millions of interrelated sense-percepts is established. We trust to the god of chance for the furnishing of this apperceptive mass, and at that point education ceases to be a science. Right there we begin to elicit unfunctioned words from the pupil, and give him his first lesson in lying. That is the burden of psychological miscalculation which has ever weighed upon our teachers' efforts, and is weighing upon them today.

The remedy lies in less reading—or rather a postponed reading; less bandying back and forth of unfunctioned or only half-functioned words, and more of a constructive manipulation of objects, more intent looking at spaces, forms, and colors, more listening to characteristic sounds, and more language lessons based directly upon the resulting mental states. This enriching of the apperceptive data one man calls nature-study; another, manual training; another, object-lessons; another, industrial education; and so on. But what is there in a name? Call it what you will; it is simply letting the pupil loose once more into a normal environment from which it appears the school's chief business, at present, to withhold him.

I protest against this question being swept aside with the assertion that the mind becomes sufficiently informed with these elements of imagery before the child's entry into school, and during the recesses of the school life. It is in every probability far from the truth, more particularly in the great cities. And this view is amply borne out in the standard complaint of our

various high-school teachers, who find the graduates of the elementary school vacant of mind and quite impermeable to the excellences of fine literature, or artistic presentations of any sort; while the laboratory men complain equally that the entering pupils display no gumption in the handling of materials and apparatus. In a word, the lower-school graduate has given so many of his eight thousand hours[2] to the mastery and re-mastery, and again the re-mastery, of the three R's that there are sounding echoes in those chambers of his mind which should be filled with working material. He breaks an inordinate number of test-tubes because he has a too vague conception of the frangibility of glass. His crude notions of weights and measures, and stresses, strains, and proportions, mark him as a very clown in those little exigencies where his benchmate, perchance, having the boon of a normal childhood behind him, proves adept. He mars the schoolhouse and its furniture with jackknife and pencil, and is arraigned for malicious mischief. But the truth of the matter is that he merely does not possess those standards of the general fitness of things which are acquired through much constructive sense-activity among the simple forms of the objective world.

The great obstacles toward the rationalizing of our public-school work are, first, the inordinate proportion of time given to formal language and number, and, second, the resulting popular cry of "overcrowded course of study." The latter is that destructive *vox populi* which frightens the superintendent out of the course which his common-sense dictates. It sanctifies the teacher of the traditional type, whose ideal of professional service is to live out a life-tenure with the least possible exertion. And it paralyzes the initiative of the opposite type, who struggles unconfidently against the rigidity of her circumstances.

If these reflections are at all in keeping with reason, they seem to imply the following steps toward a readjustment of the course of study:

1. Reduce the time allotment of the three R's. Give formal

[2] The public-school course consumes 8,000 hours: 8 years of 40 weeks of 25 hours.

language and number their due, but not three times their due. For the rest of the eight thousand hours either enrich the pupil's life by a recourse to the other rudiments, or turn him loose to seek that enrichment, as Newton did, in his own devices.

2. Disabuse the teacher's mind of the moss-grown fallacy that formal language and arithmetic are the only rudiments; or even that they legitimately take precedence among the rudiments.

3. In the enriching material introduced as the media of the other rudiments, correct that tendency toward intensive study wherein the adult reads his own special interests, aptitudes, and intellectual necessities into the mind of the child. Let the subject-matter of elementary instruction be more broadly inclusive than it has been, and in a less degree intensive.

This latter stipulation implies my final proposition, as to the content of nature-study. I limit the term to a diffuse and juvenile sense-activity, as something different from, and antecedent to, those intensive and logically pursued studies which fall under the head of natural science. The pupil must rove afield, and see grass and flowers, and hear the birds sing. He must sail a boat and fly a kite. He must whittle a stick and mold a lump of clay. He must draw and paint, in a hundred different aspects of form and color, and light and shade. He must construct, in paper and wood, and tin, and putty, and glass, and rubber, and all available sorts of matter. He must fashion the boat he sails, and frame the kite he flies. A good half of the manual arts, as available for the elementary school, will be merely these little constructive enterprises, in exemplification of his nature-study.

It is apparent that we can no more specify the exact number of sense-percepts to be secured to the pupil than we can designate the precise number of words which shall constitute his vocabulary. It would sound the knell of human growth if we could to this extent crystallize elementary study. The most successful teachers, those whose beneficence weaves itself into the lifelong remembrance and affection of their pupils, will probably say: "The more the merrier, and God save the little chap who gets least."

WHAT FORM OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IS MOST PRACTICAL AND BEST SUITED TO THE COUNTRY CHILD?[1]

O. J. KERN
Superintendent of Schools for Winnebago County, Rockford, Ill.

It is to be regretted, perhaps, that we do not have a better term to express the thought of this afternoon's programme; for a great many most excellent people today moving along Educational Avenue, leading up to the public school, shy and stop still at the sight of the word "industrial" as applied to the work of the school. Any attempt to lead them closer for a more careful inspection of this word proves unavailing. To their thinking, industrial training means the elimination of "culture," whatever that may mean, and the substitution of the reform school or the trade school. For them the thought has not yet come that education should be for service as well as for "sweetness and light"; that the children in our schools should be able to do things, as well as to know about things. And in the doing of things there is as great opportunity for culture as there is in studying about what men have said and done, as revealed by the printed page.

The distinction between higher education and industrial education has no real foundation upon which to rest. It is a survival of the aristocratic ideas of the Middle Ages. The thought is not original with the writer to claim that farming and blacksmithing are just as high as law and theology. Whether it be better to be a blacksmith than a minister depends. As has been well said recently: "It is better to pound an anvil and make a good horseshoe than to pound a pulpit and make a poor sermon."

Quoting further from this same writer: "There is a real distinction between education for self-support and education for self-development; between what the Germans call the bread-and-

[1] Paper read before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Louisville, Ky., March 1, 1906.

butter sciences and culture. In order, if not in importance, the bread-and-butter sciences come first. The first duty every man owes to society is to support himself; therefore, the first office of education is to enable the pupil to support himself." And, as has been said above, industrial education, if carried on aright, contributes to self-culture as well as to self-support. . . . .

My discussion calls for a consideration of "What Form of Industrial Training Is Most Practical and Best Suited for the Country Child?"

All those interests and activities that relate to agriculture in an elementary way, quite elementary for a while, are practical and suited for the training of the country child. The prosperity of this nation in its last analysis rests upon agriculture. A very great majority of the children enrolled in the country schools will remain on the farm, and the country school should help them to a better understanding of the new phases of agriculture. The number remaining on the farm will increase when right ideals prevail in the instruction with reference to the dignity, worth, and financial possibilities of the kind of farming that is "higher education."

To be specific, a study of the soil by means of the school garden is practical to a certain extent in every country school. To be sure, a live teacher will get more out of it than a dead one who does not yet even know that she is dead. But something is done and can be done. A start is being made. To wait till all the teaching force is ready is to do nothing.

Last year the Department of Agriculture at Washington surveyed over fifteen million acres of farm land. The state of Illinois is spending $25,000 annually in its soil survey and soil experiments. Thus far, sixteen counties have been surveyed, and the expectation is to continue till the entire 102 counties are surveyed. Every type of soil, as small as ten-acre lots, is mapped and described. A various-colored map is published and put in bulletin form.

Here is a map of one county [showing] which gives you an idea of the work of the Soil Bureau. You see the different types of soil for this particular county represented by different

colors. The printed matter in connection with this map gives an accurate account of the early settlement, climate, physiography and geology, description of the types of soil, agricultural conditions, markets, transportation facilities, etc. Laying aside all thought of industrial training and the so-called elimination of "culture," and the alleged "making farmers" of our country chidren by "putting agriculture into the country school," just think how valuable this bulletin is in teaching home geography! Surely there is time for the study of geography in the average country school. A copy of this map and bulletin was put into the library of every country school of this county. The expense was nothing. And this map, so far as it goes, is far more valuable for the teaching of agriculture than the so-called agricultural charts for $40 which some school officers are buying of agents who are posing as apostles of agricultural instruction for the country school.

We are not quite accurate when we speak of "putting agriculture into the country school." Rather let us attempt to put the school into agriculture, into right relation to its environment.

A school garden is practical. True, it is in its experimental stage as yet. So was manual training for the city child, and is so to a certain extent today. But no one would eliminate manual training because teachers do not yet know all about matter and method. We do not know all about the school garden as a means of giving instruction with reference to soil and plant-life. We can learn, however, and learn by doing, even if the doing is crude for a few years. The best way to have a garden in the country school is to have it even if it is no larger than four feet square. A start can be made, and that is a great deal. To sit down and contemplate the difficulties is to remain seated.

School-garden work, manual training, and domestic arts for the country school will be put on a more intelligent and permanent basis when there are trained supervisors for this work, just as many city schools now have. This will come when the county superintendent can change the ideals of the country people so that they will regard the office for educational leadership, and not subject to the exigencies of party politics. The task of changing ideals in this respect is a fairly big one.

True, if we could have such gardens as the Macdonald gardens of Canada, better results would be obtained. If millionaires of this country would find it possible to do as this man is doing, doing something for the country child, a great educational uplift would come to all phases of country life. Here [showing] is a most interesting pamphlet describing the Macdonald gardens. There are special traveling instructors for these gardens, which are two acres in extent. One or two quotations are sufficient to reveal their character.

With reference to the place of the garden in school work:

> The work of the garden is recognized as a legitimate part of the school program, and is already interwoven with a considerable part of the other studies. The garden is becoming the outer classroom of the school, and its plots are its blackboards. The garden is not an innovation, or an excresence, or an addendum, or a diversion. It is a happy field of expression, an organic part of the school in which boys and girls work among growing things and grow themselves in body and mind and spiritual outlook.

Of the advantages, the following summary only is given here:

1. Educationally, it affords a release from the dull routine of the schoolroom, and puts the pupil out into the fresh air and sunlight. It is a means of help by affording scope for motor activities that are natural to growing children. The garden work is correlated with much of the formal work of the school, as arithmetic, reading, composition, drawing, etc. It serves as an introduction to the development of literary appreciation, as the "ability to appreciate the charm of many of the best poems depends not a little on ability to form visual images of natural objects." In this respect, if the teacher in the country school is alert, the country child has the advantage over the city child; for "the urban eye of the town-bred child, who has never been interested in garden or field, must fail to catch the imagery of our best nature poems."

2. Economically, the school garden teaches the composition and care of the soil, best conditions for plant life, value of fertilizers, seed selection, etc.

3. Nationally, the school garden develops an interest in the fundamental industry of the country. There develops the sense of ownership and of respect for property.

In the care of their own plots the pupils fight common enemies and learn that a bad weed in a neglected plot may make trouble for many others. The garden is a pleasant avenue of communication between the school and the home, relating them in a new and living way, and thereby strengthening the public interest in the school as a national institution.

A study of plant-life is practical and suited for the country child. For years we have had the thoroughbred horse, the pure-bred cow, and now comes the high-bred corn. Here is an ear [showing] of high-bred corn raised by the president of the Illinois Corn Growers' Association. This was taken from a field that easily made one hundred bushels per acre. To be sure, to raise hundred-bushel corn there must be not only hundred-bushel seed, but also hundred-bushel soil and a hundred-bushel man. Our industrial training should teach the children in the country schools to strive for these three things: better seed, increasingly fertile soil, and more intelligent methods of operation. Here is an opportunity for the school to co-operate with the home and train children to study corn on experimental plots at home.

Likewise some training with reference to farm animal-life, and a consideration of some of the elementary principles of the business and of farming, is practical and suitable. Farm economics is practical arithmetic, and could well take the place of much textbook matter that is "taught at." Surely the average country school has time to teach the arithmetic that the pupils must use after leaving school.

With the country high schools—that is, the village high schools—and the country consolidated school as centers, manual training for the country child should begin. From these schools this educational activity will spread into a large number of one-room country schools. This will be slow; for the average farmer does not yet distinguish between manual training and manual labor. If all the data could be collected, it would appear that quite a considerable amount of manual training, elementary in form, is now being carried on in the country schools.

Here is a great opportunity for the school to co-operate with the country home; and through the inspiration and help of a live teacher a work-bench can be installed in the home workshop,

if it seems impracticable to instal one in the country schoolhouse. The boy at home—and the girl, too, in connection with home economy—can make a small collection of simple tools, and from the teacher receive instruction as to processes of work, etc. The country school and the country home should come closer together. The lines of industrial work suited to the farm and farm home offer an exceptionally fine opportunity for this closer union for a common purpose. Most of the old farm activities have gone since the introduction of farm machinery of improved make. With this change have gone some elements in the training for the country child that must be supplied by the new country school and the new farm home, to meet the new conditions of country life in the age of telephones, trolley cars, daily delivery of mail, improved farm machinery, discoveries relating to the science of agriculture, and improved methods of farm operations.

For the boy this manual training will consist in a working knowledge of the care and use of tools for repair work on the farm, farm mechanics, the simple elements of carpentry, etc. Along with this will go a practical knowledge of materials.

For the girl there will be instruction in household economy and management, food materials and the preparation of food, sewing and a study of textiles, etc.

There need be no alarm that the country child will not receive culture along these lines. As has been well said:

> To teach a boy the mechanics of home-keeping, to teach the girl the chemistry of home-keeping, is as much self-culture as to teach either what kinds of homes the ancient Greeks and Romans possessed. Our present self-development is too narrow. We need to broaden it. Manual training is necessary to make the "all-round" man.

We can take this culture to the country child, and in addition take to the country school good books, art, and music; and we need no longer be under the necessity of tearing up the farm home by its roots and taking the children to the city to secure the country child's rights, so far as an educational opportunity is concerned, to partake of all that is best the age has to offer.

SOME EXPERIMENTS IN GROUP-WORK

C. B. SHAW
Wells School

In 1904 Dr. Scott, of the Boston Normal School, gave a series of talks before the Dunton Club on matters pertaining to the education of children, emphasizing the value of self-organized group-work. I became interested in his accounts of work which had been done in the West, and resolved to allow my pupils to suggest some line of work they would like to pursue, and to give them a place on the regular school programme for carrying out their plans. I first consulted our principal, who readily agreed to our trying it.

The work was begun with a fourth grade of girls, the greater part of them the children of Russian Jews. The girls of this district are a very bright, interesting set, to whom getting an education means all that is pleasant; and perhaps this latter fact will account for their choosing at first some regular school-work like arithmetic, or writing compositions, during the half-hour which I offered them, instead of something which might seem more attractive to other children.

On the afternoon when they were to tell me what they would like to do, the list of things suggested was a long one. Some things were never attempted at all, as many girls gave up their own plans to join some other group. On the list were sewing, crocheting shawls, drawing, arithmetic, reading stories, playing house and store, elocution, etc.

Of course, the kind of work or play in which a child wishes to engage is largely influenced by his home-life and the resources which he has. Many of these children are very poor, and many of those who are not poor live at home very differently from our American children. Groups in photography, for instance, were not thought of where no child owned a kodak and few had ever seen one used.

Some of the groups carried on their work in different corners of the schoolroom, while some used an empty room in the hall, and others the teacher's dressing-room. The time allowed was only one half-hour a week, but through interest in the work much extra time was spent on it before and after school and at recess.

That year the group that remained practically unchanged from beginning to end, and that did the best work, was, surprising to say, the elocution group. I must admit that the word "elocution" alone was enough to arouse my doubts, and I frankly told the leader I had no experience in that direction. She didn't seem to need any assistance, however, for she told me she had a book which explained all about elocution. She gathered six or eight girls about her and taught them the appropriate gestures for grief, joy, surprise, supplication, etc. Then she gave them each a selection to learn in which the proper inflections and gestures were used.

After this things were rather at a standstill until the teacher suggested that they give a little play. The leader took a book from the library and selected the little drama "Cinderella," but after some work upon it they all decided that the songs and dances were too difficult, and, moreover, they didn't know what to do with the boys' parts. (We have since had many plays and tableaux in which the boys' parts have been well taken by girls.) Then a play called "The Little Needlewomen" was chosen. The parts were distributed and learned, and the rehearsals conducted without any aid from the teacher. When the group was ready for the final rehearsal, the teacher was invited to see it. There were some mispronounced words to correct and stage-setting to suggest, but their interpretation of the play was good. It was given for the class and for guests. At the end of the year, when their class and two others held their picnic at Franklin Park, the girls of this group entertained the three classes by giving a dramatic representation of "Bluebeard" and a little play called "The Coal Famine," which the leader had adapted from one called "The Bread Famine."

The following year the work was carried on in a sixth grade

by many of these same girls who had received a double promotion. Their experience of the year before had given them a better idea of the work. They began to get away from selecting the regular studies on the school programme, and were readier with ideas of their own.

Groups for acting plays and stories and poems, which they themselves dramatized, and for the presentation of tableaux, still held a prominent place and seemed to have the most attraction for these children. Of course, the dramatic instinct is strong at this age, and particularly among the Russian Jews. At Christmas time one of the groups presented "How We Caught Santa Claus," an original play written by the leader, a girl of twelve years; and another group gave "The House of Santa Claus," taken from a book of plays.

About this time we were asked by a friend what would help us most in our work, and we immediately said: "A curtain to go across the front of the room for our theatrical performances." The material was bought, and the girls made the curtain and sewed on the rings. Then our principal had a copper wire put up across the front of the room, and the curtains were hung when needed, and taken down and put away when not in use. The groups did not resort to the Elizabethan way of representing scenes by simply writing on the front board, "This is a street in New York," but always had as much stage-setting as they could collect. When an interior was shown, they brought rugs, table-covers, sofa pillows, etc., from home. Right here was the teacher's opportunity to help these children make a room look homelike, to put together quiet, harmonious colors, and to arrange flowers and books on a table. The only lamp we had offered for one play had seen better days, and there were some fearful and wonderful table-covers brought in.

Another original play given this year was "Patsy and Laura," written by a little eleven-year-old girl of French parentage. Several times during the year other classes in the building were invited to our room to see what a group had to present. In May our class gave a little entertainment on a Saturday afternoon in St. Andrew's Hall to raise money for a private charity. All of

the twenty or thirty tableaux which were given were originated by a twelve-year-old girl, and were posed by her personally just before the curtain rose. The play, "Patsy and Laura," was repeated, and other plays selected by the teacher were given.

At different times during that year there were five or six groups for giving plays and tableaux; three groups in cooking; and groups in sewing, crocheting, and cutting and pasting to make scrapbooks. There were many difficulties in the way of the cooking group, but overcoming difficulties is one of the helpful features of this work. Our principal gave the first cooking group a gas stove, and it bought its own pipe. The other groups brought their own stoves from home. There was only one gas-burner in the room where a pipe could be attached, and, as all the groups had to use that, there was considerable waiting. Sometimes a group would make something that didn't need to be cooked, as stuffed dates. Among the different things that were made were cocoa, jells, farina, and several kinds of candy. One morning the first group made fudge which was too soft, and it immediately said it should make it again next time and get it right. The second group had a bad time getting started, and often tried things that were too hard with which to have great success. The leader didn't seem to have much ability in carrying out the work. After spoiling peppermints and muffins, the children meekly tried stewed prunes, which they prepared successfully. Later they brought in a freezer and ice and made lemon sherbet. The members of the cooking groups always passed to the teachers portions of whatever was made.

This fall my sixth grade has begun its work, but, as it had no opportunity for carrying it on last year, the results will probably not be so satisfactory as could be wished.

One group is at work in dolls' dressmaking. The first thing it did was to make little muslin or calico bags to hold thimbles, needles, etc. There are several groups for acting, and a group which is cutting out paper furniture and pasting it on sheets of gray paper in imitation of furnished rooms. The leader of one group, who had a book of Wordsworth's poems at home, wished to have some of them learned and recited. She

selected "To the Cuckoo" and "The Reverie of Poor Susan." One little girl said she wished to make some drawings which could be represented afterward as tableaux. "But," I said, "you would have to make drawings of people; can you do that?" (The school programme doesn't allow much time for pose drawing, and never for a *front* pose in our grade, I believe.) The child was quite sure she could do what she had in mind, however, and I asked her to take a sheet of paper home and draw something to show what she meant. Next morning she appeared with a good drawing of a little girl standing at a table and blowing soap-bubbles. The table was decorated with a fringed cloth, and a bowl of water was standing on it. The little girl in the drawing was facing full *front,* and, even to the buttons on her shoes, her appearance was faithfully represented. There are two little girls working in this group now. It is the first work of the kind that has ever been suggested. The girls do not copy their drawings, but "make them up" as they go along. The titles of some of these pictures are "Saluting the Flag," "Taking Dolly for an Airing," "Playing Telephone," etc.

At the teacher's suggestion one group is preparing to give a representation of the old ballad, "King John and the Abbot of Canterbury," and another the Lullaby for Titania from *A Midsummer Night's Dream.* The leader of this latter group, who also belongs to the drawing group, has set the words of the Lullaby to a little song which she had learned in school, and just now she is carefully teaching it to the girls who are to take the part of the fairies.

On Friday afternoon, November 16, we had our first finished piece of work, an original play entitled "The Orphan," by a ten-year-old girl. It was a simple little play of three acts. In the first act a child is begging on the street. People jostle her and speak to her rudely, and, as she herself says, no one seems to care for her. At last, one woman stops and asks her some questions, and when she finds that the child is alone in the world she asks her if she would like to go home with her and be her little girl. The second act shows us little *Rosebud,* still in her ragged clothes, eating her first dinner in her new home. The

third scene is the street before *Rosebud's* new home. The little girl, in pretty new clothes, is playing with other children. Among the passers-by is one woman who had spoken roughly to *Rosebud* when she was a beggar. Now she looks at her with eyes of envy, as one of the children expressed it, and tries to steal her away, but *Rosebud's* adopted mother appears just in time to save her, and they live happily ever after. The leader of this group has since written another play, which the teacher decided was too much of a tragedy to be given, and so she is now looking over some plays in books in order to select one.

On the following Friday the members of another group gave a collection of recitations and songs. The pasting group also hung up for examination the sheets illustrating furnished rooms.

The criticism of the class upon the work presented by any group is one of the most helpful parts of the work.

This group-work is not always carried on without friction between the leaders and those under them; the children's ideals are not always very high; and their productions, particularly the original writings, are very crude and faulty; but it seems to be all in the right direction. The children gain a great deal in power of independent thought and action; the desire for leadership is satisfied (which should make the teacher's work in discipline easier); difficulties are overcome; and work is often attempted and done easily and pleasantly which the teacher would think too difficult to give.

These are some of the simple experiments we have tried, and from results already attained we feel encouraged to continue the group-work.

GROUP-WORK IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

LOTTA A. CLARK
Charlestown, Mass.

A child, like everyone else, learns to *do* by *doing*. This is such a truism, and everyone knows it so well, that it would seem as though nothing more need be said about it. Yet the number of things which our pupils actually *do* for *themselves* in the schoolroom is very small.

With our crowded and hurried conditions it is not easy to see how it can be otherwise. Teachers feel that in order to get the necessary amount of work done they must plan it in detail carefully beforehand, must get all the material ready, and must put the pupils through the work in as systematic and orderly a way as possible.

Yet, with all our care, how much of this work, which seems so clear and simple to the teacher who has thought it all out—how much of it is clear, vital, or palatable to the pupil? Like the proverbial horse that can be led to the water, the pupil can be put through a certain amount of work; but, just as the horse will not drink unless he be thirsty, so the pupil will not make these facts his own unless he *feel* the need for them. Do our lessons in grammar make our boys and girls speak good English at home, in the street, or even in the classroom? How many of our boys in school learn to add and substract as our newsboys do on the street? How many lessons in history and civil government send better voters to the polls? How many of our boys and girls leave school with good rational habits of study and a *desire* to *continue* to study? Yet, if our young people do not learn to speak good English, to deal with figures accurately and quickly, to be conscientious citizens, and intelligent readers and thinkers of the world's problems, their education has not been as successful as it might be.

The question is how to make the work in the schoolroom of

the kind which will give our young people some of the same experience and training which they are expected to have when they leave school and go out into life. More than this, the school-work ought to give them a chance to express and use any natural inclination or talent which any of them may possess.

After a boy or girl has spent thirteen years in school and goes from the high school out into business, he or she is expected to assume *responsibility,* plan ways of doing things, make investigations, and talk to different sorts of people intelligently and forcibly. In the ordinary recitation in school, which has been planned and is conducted by the teacher, in which the business of the pupil is to answer the questions, the boy or girl takes no responsibility in the progress of the lesson, and gets no chance to plan, investigate, or discuss. If, however, the work is carried on by means of the social group, these are the very things that the pupils get an opportunity to do. I had learned the idea of the social group from Dr. Colin A. Scott, who had told us of the success with which it had been tried in some of the cities in the West.

It seemed imposisble at first to get a chance to try the group-work—the conditions in the high school make it difficult. Instead of having the same pupils for five hours each day, we have a different set each hour, and it is with us but forty-five minutes. Some of our classes we see only three times a week, and, as a number of the pupils is preparing for college or normal school, there is not a moment to be wasted. The group-work must be directly in line with the work laid down in the course of study, and, as it is expected in the high school that lessons shall be learned outside, the work in the classroom must test what has been learned.

In spite of all this, I determined two years ago to try the social group-work in the classroom. The class in which the experiment was tried was a beginners' class in ancient history. There were ninety-three pupils in the class, and it was divided into three sections, each of which recited to me three times a week. There were two things which I wished to give them an opportunity to do: (1) to co-operate—to work together; and

(2) to give each individual a chance to do the sort of thing which he *particularly wants* to do.

I talked the matter over with the classes, showed them why the lessons which we had been having were not satisfactory, and asked them how they would like to try the experiment of conducting their history lessons themselves. The novelty of the idea pleased them, and after considerable informal discussion we decided to carry on our recitations in the form of business meetings. A chairman was appointed from the class to take charge of the meeting, and there was something of a sensation when I exchanged chairs with him. He appointed committees to nominate candidates for a president, vice-president, and secretary. These officers were elected by ballot for one month, and their duties were decided upon by the class. We had an amusing time when they tried to decide what they ought to do with me. I told them I was going to do just as little as possible in the class, so that they might have all the time and opportunity there was. They finally decided to call me "the executive officer," with power to exercise full authority if necessity required.

It was surprising to see the change in the whole atmosphere of the recitations which this order of things brought about. The pupils were timid at first, and I trembled for the result; but after a lesson or two they became used to it, and the work went with far more ease and spirit than I had dared to hope it would. Here is a brief sketch of the order of the new kind of recreation:

1. The president called the class to order and called the roll.

2. He called for the secretary's report, which was corrected by the class and was then formally accepted.

3. The president asked if there was any unfinished business. If so, that was taken up first; if not,

4. The lesson of the day was called for. Whoever wished to, arose, addressed the president, and began to describe the historical events. If he made a mistake or omitted anything, any pupil who noticed it arose and, when recognized by the president, made the corrections he thought necessary. Sometimes these corrections were not correct or did not go far enough, and sev-

eral others entered into the discussion. When there were several pupils on the floor at once, the one who was recognized by the president first had the right of way, and the others had to do the same in turn. That prevented disorder. This part of the work proved to be of great value. The pupils questioned each other's statements; and, when they could not agree, the point was left over as unfinished business until the next day; and in the meantime they consulted authorities to be able to prove their points, and they used their reasoning power to good advantage.

There were all sorts of unexpected, interesting developments as the work went on. Whenever difficulties arose, we solved them together. My opinion was of no more importance than theirs. When we did not agree, I insisted that they should try their way, so they would have confidence in their own judgment if they succeeded, or so they could see its weakness if they failed. Sometimes they elected officers who were not efficient and who bungled matters uncomfortably. The pupils suffered immediately from the results and got some valuable lessons in civil government at first hand.

To tell all this sounds as if it must have taken a great deal of time. As a matter of fact, we soon found that we had time to spare. The time which had previously been taken up by the teacher's questions was all saved, and the pupils could easily recite in half an hour what it had taken them an hour to prepare. The reports of the secretary gave all the review necessary; and, as the class grew more critical of both the history and the English of these reports, the secretaries grew more careful, and very often we had reports read with which no fault could be found. The roll-call and report were sometimes finished in five minutes, the lesson of the day in thirty more, and we found ourselves with ten minutes to spare. There were various suggestions as to what we had better do with the extra time. One was, that they take longer lessons; and this led us into the habit of letting them assign their own lessons; and they almost always took longer ones than I had been in the habit of giving them.

Another suggestion was that the scholars collect pictures and show them to the class during spare minutes. One boy said he

didn't have much luck finding pictures, but he would like to read things in other books and tell them to the class. A girl asked if she might draw some pictures from a book in the library, and still another boy asked me to get permission for him to go over to the Art Museum with his camera to take photographs of the casts there that were connected with our work. We did all these things, and many, many more; and these suggestions led to the richest development of all in the work of this year. The classes formed themselves into little informal clubs, met at recess and after school, and decided what each would do to contribute something interesting to the lessons. There were the drawing clubs, the camera clubs, and the clubs that brought in pictures, newspaper clippings, and told interesting accounts which they had read, calling themselves the "Sidelights Club."

We used the last half of the last history lesson each week for the reports of these clubs. They all did well for beginners, but the work of the drawing clubs was remarkable. A point worth noting is that some of the finest drawings were made by the poorest talkers.

The Sidelights Club did some fine work, too. They always had more to give than the time allowed. One boy who had tried several times without success to get a chance to talk asked me: "Do you suppose I shall ever get a chance to tell what I've found about Vestal virgins?" I told him to keep on trying, and finally he found his chance. Another boy wanted to describe a Roman house. He felt the need of a large plan to show the class, and, as he himself could not draw, he asked one of the girls in the drawing club to help him. She made him a beautiful pen-and-ink sketch of the ground-plan of a Roman villa. Still another boy, who had been specially interested in Pompeii, had been to considerable trouble to get a certain collection of Pliny's letters from the central library. He had read one of the letters describing the eruption of Vesuvius to the class, and some time afterward he said to me: "If we have time today, may I read another letter from Pliny?" "Isn't that book overdue?" I asked. "Yes," he answered, "but there's another letter in it that the

rest ought to hear." He was willing to pay the fine so they might hear it.

The discipline of these classes was the easiest I have ever had, and became almost entirely unnecessary as the year went on. On one memorable occasion a boy forgot himself and was severely reprimanded by the teacher. The next day the secretary described the whole occurrence minutely in her report. It nearly took my breath away and met with a storm of protest from the class. We had the report carefully re-read, and, on finding that every word of it was perfectly true and proper, the class accepted the report, and it was placed on file with the rest. There was no more unsatisfactory conduct to report in that section.

And what was the teacher's part in this new order of things? She was learning the truth of the statement that "no teacher is equal to the dynamic force of the class before her." Her energy was taxed to the utmost to utilize all that the pupils produced, to help to get material for them, to find and suggest books to be consulted, and to give them credit for work done.

Our history work was completed two weeks before the school closed, and the extra time was spent in debates, reporting items of interest, and in making the notebooks which they were to take home as rich and attractive as possible. As the year closed, I felt that I had never done such a satisfactory year's work, and in all the classes the pupils asked if they might not be allowed to continue their work next year in the same way.

The following year (which was 1905) we tried the same method in our graduating classes which were studying United States history and civil government.

Every Monday they elected a president for the week by ballot. They changed officers often, in order that all might be able to hold position during the year. One member of the class volunteered to be secretary for the week, and four others to be assistant secretaries.

Any mistakes that were made either in history or in English were corrected by the class. Sometimes the pupil who was said to have made a mistake insisted that he was right and read the

passage from the book on which he had based his statement. There were several kinds of books used in the class, and, as they often differed in statement, this led to comparison, keen discussion, and careful judgment by the class, before it could come to a conclusion.

As those who criticize are given as much credit as those who describe events, the attention of the class is constant, and, as time goes on, the pupils are careful not to make mistakes. Criticism by one of his own age means more to a boy than the criticism of a teacher. He knows very well that it is not fair to expect him to look at a thing from her point of view, nor to express it just as she does. But if one of his fellows points out his mistake, he is anxious to bring himself up to the mark at once.

If there was anything in a lesson or discussion that was not perfectly understood, the pupil who wanted an explanation felt at liberty to ask for it. This led to a most valuable kind of work. For instance, the class was discussing the administration of Monroe, and the Erie Canal was described. One of the girls arose and said: "Mr. President, I wish someone would explain to me how that canal works; I do not understand it at all." Several other girls nodded in sympathy. The boy answered: "It works by hydraulic pressure." "But just what is hydraulic pressure?" asked the girl. "I'll have to make a drawing to show it," the boy replied. He went to the board, put on the drawing, and succeeded in explaining it so the girls understood the *principle* very well. "Now, how do they use the hydraulic pressure at the canal?" was the girl's final question. Several boys tried to answer this, but none could make it clear to the girls, so they agreed to study it out more carefully and give it at the next lesson. Two of the boys investigated the matter and gave very satisfactory explanations of it.

Much of our civil-government work has been done at first hand. We had the state and city elections in our class. Previous to each election we found out what was being done in preparation for it. In connection with the city election this brought up the questions of the Luce law and the primary elections. We found we could get no help from our textbooks on

these subjects, so a letter was written to Mr. Luce asking him for a copy of his law. He sent us, not only what we had asked for, but also some interesting literature in regard to the law, and told us where we could get more if we needed it.

After discussing how such things should be done, the class divided itself into two wards, appointed the proper officers, and every pupil registered exactly as he would if he were a voter. The voting lists were typewritten and placed on the bulletin board a day or two later; and, when election day came and the voters of Massachusetts were at the polls, each of our pupils had a ballot which he had prepared for himself and was ready for our voting.

All raised their desk-covers and retired within their desks as far as possible while marking their ballots. This was the best imitation we could devise of the Australian system, and it answered very well. The pupils then deposited their votes in proper order in sealed ballot boxes, and the polls were closed. The ward officers counted the votes, the result was written on the board, and the election declared.

The same thing was done several weeks later when the city election took place. The pupils entered into the spirit of the thing, posted pictures of their favorite candidates on the bulletin board, and brought in interesting newspaper and magazine articles about them. It all seemed very real, even to the teacher; and if these boys and girls do not vote when they are of age it will not be because they do not know how.

The pupils this year (1906) have taken up the work very easily, and have been able to undertake some things which we were never able to do before. We have a Current Events Club, and among other things in which it was much interested was the coming exposition at Jamestown. Several magazines were brought in which contained accounts of it, and a discussion arose as to whether there really is a town of Jamestown now. In a similar way, a question came up as to whether or not William and Mary College is still in existence. One of our best histories states plainly that it is not, but some very good evidence was brought in on both sides. Finally one of the girls volunteered to

write to a high school in Portsmouth, Va., and ask both questions. A letter came back promptly, and, in addition to the information we sought, there was sent us a plan of the exposition and some pictures of historic interest. These were posted on our bulletin board for the benefit of all, and we corrected the mistake in our textbook.

This letter which we received from Virginia will be the beginning of a Correspondence Club. Our school is on the Bunker Hill battle-ground. When we have finished studying about the battle and have collected all the historical material possible, the classes will incorporate what they have gathered and worked out in a letter illustrated by sketches and photographs taken by our Camera Club. The first copy of this will be sent to the Portsmouth High School. Others will be sent to schools in New York City, Detroit, and London, England. These schools in turn will send us letters describing places of historic interest in their neighborhoods.

We have a Library Club also, which has taken upon itself the work of beginning a students' history of Charlestown. There are few pupils who do not write well when they are writing for a purpose.

There is much more that I might say in regard to this method of carrying on our work, but enough has been said to show that work based upon the *social idea* can be carried on even with *our present school conditions* in a way, not only successful and valuable, but also quite delightful.

Pupils are glad to work when they know that whatever they are able to accomplish by themselves will be appreciated in school. In searching for material, they ransack their attics and libraries, and learn to know what there is at home better than they ever did before. They talk about their work with the family and friends, who also contributed items of interest, souvenirs of travel, and sometimes relics of value. Last week a friend loaned one of our boys a volume of London magazines published in 1776. The boy read us a thrilling account of the Boston Massacre from it.

In closing, let me say that I have recently heard from three

teachers, who, though strangers to me, became interested in our work last year and tried the same method. The teacher in Detroit sends word of excellent results; one in the Medford High School says that one class of boys which was not at all interested in English history before carried the work along with life and spirit when it got a chance to conduct the class itself. I quote from the letter of the New York teacher. She says:

> The class of older girls, which I had dreaded, had a life about it that *I* had never been able to arouse. The girls were full of interest in the subject, and I found they loved to talk provided I would give them a chance, and I did learn to keep my lips closed more and more. I had never realized before how much talking I had done.

As a final word, may I make a plea that we give our boys and girls a chance to work in ways more natural to them; that we learn to know them better; that we may keep their school-life so keenly in touch with the life outside that they may feel that *both* are vital parts of the social world in which they live?

AN INDIAN VILLAGE IN THE FIRST GRADE

BEATRICE CHANDLER PATTON
Training School, Los Angeles State Normal School

The school life of the twentieth-century child is complex in character and rich in opportunity for self-expression. The old limitations have been set aside, and his greatest need is unity of thought and purpose. Subject-matter can no longer be arbitrarily chosen nor fitfully pursued, but must center around some unifying idea. This unifying idea must be suggestive enough to admit of expression through many mediums; it must make a demand upon the whole power of the child; it must dominate his thought, so that he will use his reading, writing, and handwork as tools with which to express his ideas.

The Indian village set up in our sand tray by the children of the first grade has met these needs admirably and proved a source of endless delight. Longfellow's *Hiawatha,* with its vivid pictures and rhythmical measure, was taken as a basis of work, and, aside from the fascination which the story of the Indian boy holds for little children, three important points were emphasized: (1) the opportunity afforded for dramatic representation; (2) the ingenuity and skill developed by the constructive work; (3) the ease with which symbols were mastered and a reading vocabulary acquired.

A series of progressive lessons in history, reading, language, and literature was presented and met with hearty response from the children. The story of the Indian boy excited their sympathy, stimulated their imagination, and culminated in effective dramatic play. They followed every phase of the Indian boy's life with eagerness, and, in the dramatization of it, put in their own original conceptions, and expressed them in their own terms. With Hiawatha as the ideal type, the children were told in childlike fashion of the industrial side of Indian life in California. The Indian home was the point of departure, and

included the problems of food, clothing, and shelter in a local environment. Definite topics resulted, such as the kind of home, its equipment, the occupations of the men and women, and the play and work of the Indian boys and girls. The children delighted in the comparison with their own home-life and were quick to seize upon their own advantages. They lived in the Indian world for the time being. Tepees were decorated and set up, canoes built and launched upon the water, clay kettles swung upon sticks, and corn planted. The village needed to be inhabited, and a touch of reality was added by making clay figures of men and women in their various occupations. The men were represented smoking the peace pipe, hunting the wild animals, or fishing along the streams; while the Indian women were set up in front of their wigwams grinding corn in a mortar, or out on the hills gathering firewood, with the little Indian babies strapped upon their backs. The Indian costumes excited great interest, too, and the children worked out some original designs, repeating simple units and putting in the vivid Indian coloring with good effect.

The children's sympathies were aroused, and their minds were full of vivid images; consequently the symbols of the words which were needed to express them were quickly and easily acquired. The reading lessons were spontaneous and full of interest, and the children attacked their problems with enthusiasm and determination. With the youngest group, the lessons were presented entirely from the blackboard, and a limited amount of the material was used. A definite vocabulary was kept in mind, and sufficient amount of repetition was provided to impress the symbols presented. With the older group, who had already a fair vocabulary, the possibilities were much larger. The children retold in short, clear sentences what they had learned in the history hour, or described in simple language what they had made during the manual-training period. These short sentences, childlike in form, but full of meaning to the class, were written on the blackboard and used as reading lessons for the day.

The following are some of the reading lessons which were

THE INDIAN VILLAGE, FIRST GRADE

presented orally by the children and then read from the blackboard:

Hiawatha was an Indian boy.
Hiawatha lived with his grandmother.
Hiawatha lived in a wigwam.
Hiawatha slept in a cradle.

The bird sings to Hiawatha.
The squirrel talks to Hiawatha.
The rabbit plays with Hiawatha.
The big water sings to Hiawatha.
The tree bows to Hiawatha.

Hiawatha has a bow and arrow.
He will not shoot his chickens.
He will not shoot his brothers.
He will shoot a deer.

Hiawatha shot the deer.
Hiawatha will carry the deer home.
He will skin the deer.
He will make a coat out of the skin.

It was night.
Hiawatha was asleep.
It was dark.
It was very still.
Hiawatha heard an owl.
The owl was crying.
Hiawatha was afraid.
Hiawatha's grandmother told him not to be afraid.
Hiawatha heard his grandmother singing.
Hiawatha went to sleep again.

This experiment indicates that the time to teach the symbol of a word is when the image it describes is clear and vivid, and while there is an emotional response in the mind of the child. The topic has been full of poetic suggestion and childlike conceptions, but has been most valuable because it has kept a problem constantly before the children which required all their ingenuity to solve.

NATURE-STUDIES WITH BIRDS FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ROBERT W. HEGNER

BIRD-PROTECTION

The necessity for bird-protection is shown in the results of an exhaustive inquiry made by Mr. William T. Hornaday, of the New York Zoölogical Garden.[1] He found that the decrease in bird-life in thirty states for the fifteen years previous to 1898 averaged 46 per cent. Nebraska showed the least decrease, with only ten per cent.; Florida the greatest, with 77 per cent. When we grasp the significance of these figures, we are appalled and at once seek the causes of this destruction. As soon as we learn the birds' enemies, we can begin to eliminate many of the causes of decrease and procure means for the reinstatement of our former feathered neighbors.

The best way to provide for the future is to teach the children the beauty of birds, and that they are not only harmless, but even of important economic value. Their worth as insect- and weed-destroyers will stimulate interest, especially if there is a garden where these pests are at work.

The lawmakers of the country have been made to realize the importance of protecting birds, and many laws have been passed imposing fines for killing birds and destroying nests and eggs. Unfortunately, it has not been possible to enforce these laws with enough rigidity to produce the desired effect. That further effort is necessary is obvious, and means that each and every one of us must be careful to live up to the letter of the law and use his influence on those with whom he comes in contact.

The subject of bird-protection brings forward the following questions: Why this absence of birds? How can we attract birds? How can we protect those already here? How can we best exert an influence on others?

[1] W. T. Hornaday, "The Destruction of Our Birds and Mammals," *Second Annual Report of the New York Zoölogical Society*, pp. 77–126.

I. REASONS FOR THE ABSENCE OF BIRDS

The following are factors which account for the decrease in the number of native birds:

1. Cats.
2. Destruction by children.
3. Collectors who shoot birds and take their eggs.
4. Killed for wearing on hats.
5. Trapped for sale alive.
6. Hunted for use as food.
7. Poisoned by chemicals used in gardening, e. g., paris green.
8. Birds — some hawks, owls, crows, cowbirds, and jays.
9. Snakes.
10. Feet of cattle.
11. English sparrow.
12. Squirrels.
13. Cold, wind, and rain.
14. Telegraph wires.
15. Lighthouses.
16. Drainage of marshes.
17. Clearing away of trees and building of houses.
18. Lack of food.
19. Lack of water for drinking and bathing.
20. Lack of nesting-places.
21. Non-enforcement of laws.

The above list is very suggestive, but does not by any means include all bird enemies. It is intended to designate the more important ones.

Cats are very destructive, and particularly so during the nesting season, when the young are learning to fly and are easily caught. At this time an active cat includes tender nestlings in her daily bill of fare.

Children, especially boys, are accustomed to find pleasure in shooting birds with sling or air-rifle, just to try their skill.

Collectors shoot birds for birdskins or take eggs, thus destroying thousands every season. Collecting is a fad with most boys, and when a child shows a desire for gathering together a lot of birdskins or eggshells, he should be shown the evil of his ways,

and his energy should be turned into other channels. Collections of skins and eggs are practically useless when they are kept locked away in dark drawers, and are of value only when on exhibition in public museums, where they are available for study.

Milliners supply a demand for birds as ornaments for hats, which is responsible for the devastation of vast colonies of nesting-birds. Of these the most abused is the snowy heron, whose plumes are commonly called "aigrettes." No woman would wear one of these plumes on her hat, if she knew the murder committed to obtain it. The heron is killed during the nesting season, which is the only time these plumes occur, and the eggs in the nest are left to spoil, or the young are left to starve. If women refused to wear feathers, the demand for them would cease, and no more would be sought.

Birds often turn upon members of their own tribe, and are responsible for considerable destruction. The hawks and owls prey upon smaller birds; the crows and jays are known to rob the nests of other birds; and the cowbird lays her eggs in other birds' nests, thereby preventing the successful rearing of the rightful owners. But by far the worst bird enemy is the English sparrow. This little pest, introduced from Europe, has proved to be a wolf in sheep's clothing. Brought into our country for its beneficial qualities, it has paid us for its protection by promptly driving away the robins, bluebirds, swallows, etc., and appropriating their nesting-sites in which to bring up its numerous progeny. It should be driven away from the homes of native birds, and every means possible should be used to hinder its increase.

Squirrels[2] have been known to destroy eggs and kill young birds. That they do much to harass our nesting birds is undoubtedly true, and we must choose between the squirrels and the birds.

Clearing away of trees and building of houses, and also the *drainage of marshes,* are factors in the decrease of bird-life, because they take away the nesting-sites and force the former inhabitants to go elsewhere to build houses.

[2] See Joseph Brunner, "The Devastating Squirrel," *Country Life in America,* Vol. VII, No. 3 (January, 1905), pp. 264–67.

II. HOW TO ATTRACT BIRDS

1. Provide nesting-places, such as bird-boxes,[3] trees, bushes, etc.
2. Provide drinking- and bathing-places.
3. Put out food both winter and summer.
4. Drive out English sparrows.
5. Do not keep a cat.
6. Do not destroy nests or take eggs.
7. Do not use poison on garden vegetables.
8. Plant trees and bushes.
9. Provide nesting material.
10. Provide dust-bath.
11. Put out gravel and lime.
12. Hunt with a camera instead of a gun.

The bird-bath is an attraction without an equal, for birds need water, and will naturally build their nests where they can obtain it easily. There are a number of ways of providing them with drinking- and bathing-places. Where cats are common, the drinking-place should be situated above the ground, on a post or some other place where the birds are out of danger. Where there are no cats, the best bath is made on the ground. A hollow is dug three feet long and two feet and a half wide. This is lined with cobblestones laid in cement. When finished, it is three inches deep in the center and shallower toward the edges, so that birds of all sizes may bathe. If possible, the bath should be made near a water tap, where it can be filled easily and often. Bird-houses made of clay may also serve the purpose of drinking-cups, if a hollow is made in the top and kept filled with fresh water. Receptacles[4] for water which are placed in the limbs of trees excite the least suspicion.

Feeding birds is often necessary when the natural harvest has disappeared with the clearing away of weeds and trees. In winter a piece of suet or bone will attract nuthatches and downy woodpeckers. An elevated board may be supplied with seeds of the sunflower, pumpkin, hemp, timothy, remains from the hay-

[3] *Elementary School Teacher*, March, 1905.

[4] Mrs. F. W. Roe, "Some Familiar Florida Birds," *Bird-Lore*, December, 1904.

loft, cracked nuts, meat, and suet, and thus become a larder which will serve as a magnet for almost every variety of bird in the locality.

Hunting birds with a camera has of late become the pastime of many a birdlover who has discovered the fascination of this difficult pursuit. A volume of directions could be written on the subject, but only enough can be given here to start anyone wishing to enter the ranks of the initiated and become a true bird-photographer.

Before even the camera is purchased, one must have three things to become a successful bird-photographer. He must have a love for birds, much patience, and an abundance of time. The camera is then procured from a reliable dealer. It must be of the long-focus variety which enables the photographer to take pictures within a foot of his subject. The lens must be of good make, and the shutter must have a speed of one twenty-fifth or one-hundredth of a second in order to take successful views of moving birds. The phases of bird-photography that will be discussed below are, first, photographing nests; second, photographing birds at their nests on the ground; third, photographing birds at their nests in trees. Only the principal features of the processes will be mentioned.

The photographing of nests is very simple. The nest must be well lighted, and a small stop must be used to secure good definition.

Photographing birds at their nests presents many difficulties. Birds have learned to fear the presence of man, and will not return to the nest when anyone is near. The photographer, therefore, must be able to make the exposure from a distance. The process is as follows: The camera is securely fastened from three to ten feet from the nest, according to the size of the bird which is to be photographed. A string is attached to the shutter release and passed along the ground several hundred feet to a convenient hiding-place. The shutter is then set, a plateholder inserted, and the photographer retires to his hiding-place at the end of the string. The nests act as a magnet to the parent birds, and they will brave the terrible camera so close to the nest, in order to protect their eggs or young. In the course of an hour or two,

the time varying greatly in different cases, the parent birds return to the nest. Then the string is pulled and a snapshot taken. Instead of a string, a long rubber tube with a bicycle pump on the end may be used. When the nest is in a tree, the camera is fastened to the limbs by straps and ropes, or by a clamp such as is used to fasten a kodak on the handle bars of bicycles.

The photographs of birds are not the most valuable results of bird-photography. It is impossible to keep watch hour after hour of a bird's actions while near its nest without learning something of vital interest about its home life, its food, its habits, and its song. And most valuable of all is the increasing love for all the feathered kind which must surely follow an intimate acquaintance with the most interesting and fascinating of all living creatures.

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MUSIC-STORIES FROM THE FIRST GRADE, ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL

SARAH M. MOTT
New York City

Teachers are more and more realizing the educative power of self-expression, and are finding many ways of turning to account this phase of the child's activity. Many avenues are already opened through manual training, art, dramatization, and kindred subjects. English composition, both oral and written, has received much attention, but another side of expression—music—has been lightly touched upon, or neglected altogether.

Many children live in a world of childish melodies, and the kindly sun of encouragement needs but to shine into this little world to make it bring forth a rich fruitage of "song-stories" as truly self-expressive as any other of their activities. The child sings his experiences almost as readily as he tells them, and early appreciates the kind of music necessary to convey his idea. If singing of sunshine, blue sky, or the flutter of birds, his music-story must be bright, light, and happy; if putting the baby to sleep, it must be quiet; if telling of the rough wind that bends the trees or brings the snow, it must be stirring and strong. Sometimes all words are omitted and only the tune is hummed, the other children guessing what meaning the music is intended to convey.

Along with the encouragement of the children's own productions goes other work in music intended to train the ear and voice, to lead to an appreciation of good music, and to give, though unconsciously, a comparative basis for original composition.

Whistles, farm calls, and sounds from nature are early introduced. Constant practice is given in singing rote-songs of merit. These songs are frequently tested by the child's own standards. He listens to the music of a wind-song, for instance, and tells

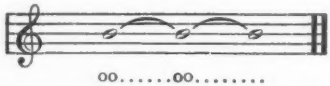
whether it adequately expresses the sentiment which the words convey. Frequently the child makes his own song, comparing it with the rote-song in process of learning. Composition and memorizing go constantly hand in hand.

Sometimes a number of experiences are combined forming a connected story, and all available material is used. At one time the following "story" was told by children of the first grade to those of the second and third, and the programme is given just as it was arranged by them.

Several children who spoke of traveling decided they must wear coats and hats; those who spoke of hoeing must have hoes; the one who sang of the harvest must have a sickle; while the dairy maids must have pails. Marion was chosen by the class to tell the story because, after hearing others, it was decided she could do it best.

Marion (spoken): "All of us have been away this summer. First we took the ferry-boat. That blows a long whistle as it leaves the dock."

I



oo.....oo.....

WHISTLE OF FERRY-BOAT

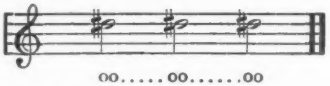
M.: "We passed a boat in the river and had to signal to it."

II

oo oo

M.: "We saw another boat and it saluted us."

III



oo.....oo.....oo

SALUTE (WHISTLE)

M.: "When we got to the other side of the river, we got on the cars. Some of us had to go to sleep on the cars and ride all night."

Said and acted by Peggy with eyes partly closed, while she played "train":

Choo-choo-choo
Choo-choo-choo

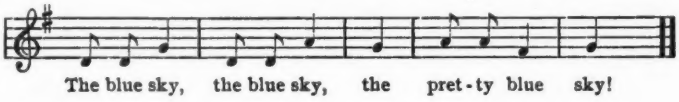
M.: "When we woke up, we were in the country. We had to drive to the farm. This is the way the farmer drove:"

(Acted by Jonas, who "clucked" and drove his imaginary horse with vigor.)

M.: "When we got to the farm, there were *so* many things to see. We looked at the sky."

Sung by Marie:

IV



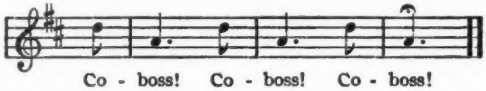
M.: "We saw the farmers hoeing."

Acted and sung by seven children:

"Hoeing, hoeing, here we go,
Seven farmers in a row,
Hoeing, hoeing, hoeing free,
Farmer's life's the life for me."[1]

M.: "Nearly every day we went with the farmer to get the cows. This is the way we called them:"

V



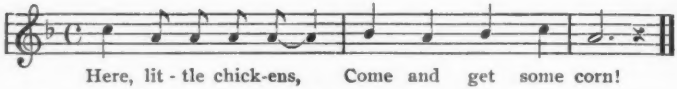
M.: "One day some little girls thought they would like to play they were dairy maids, and this is their song:"

(Eleanor Smith's *Music Primer*, p. 9.)

M.: "Laura liked to feed the chickens. This is her song that she sang when she fed them:"

[1] Adapted from Eleanor Smith's *Music Primer*, "Left! Right!", p. 49.

VI

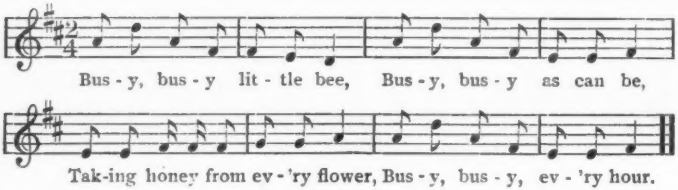


CALLING THE CHICKENS

Several children impersonated the chickens and hopped right sprightly for the imaginary corn.

M.: "Peggy watched the bees and made up this little song:"

VII



M.: "I saw a bluebird and made this rhyme about him:

'I know a little bluebird,
His back is all in blue,
And when he sings a little song,
I always think of you.'"

M.: "But we had to leave the farm and come back to the city. Robert will tell you how we said good-bye."

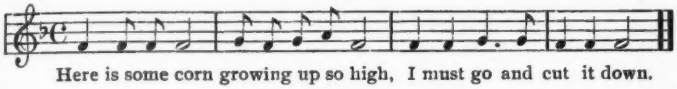
"The coach is at the door at last,
The eager children mounting fast,
And kissing hands in chorus sing:
'Good-bye, good-bye, to everything.'"[2]

M.: "While we were away, the things we had planted in our garden at school had been growing and growing. We went into the garden when we got back to school and found the corn was ripe and the stalks must be cut down. Louise made up this song:"

[2] R. L. Stevenson's "Farewell to the Farm."

Sung and acted by Louise:

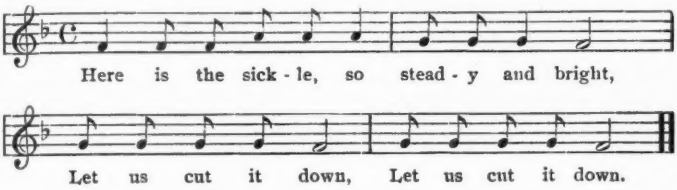
VIII



SONG OF THE CORN

M.: "Herbert cut it down and made up this song:"

IX



M.: "Now our garden and the farm are all ready for winter. The wind is calling the leaves. They will play a little while and then go to sleep."

("Come Little Leaves" — music by Horatio Parker, sung by entire class.)

While this programme is chiefly related to nature-work, other experiences are often sung. Games are originated, sung, and played. Dolly is lulled to sleep, and playmates are invited to join a game. In fact, every activity is carried along in song as well as in any other way. The children themselves are the guides, and their enjoyment of the work as well as their originality in it is a source of constant inspiration and help to the teacher.

AN ESKIMO SONG

Words and melody by children of the Sixth School Year of the University Elementary School

The jol - ly lit - tle Es - ki mo. ...
Al - though his house is made of snow, Al-
Rides a - cross the ice and snow; He drives his dogs from
though the i - cy winds do blow, The furs he wears pro-
morn till night, And snaps his whip with all his might.
tect him so, That he's not cold at all, you know.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The School Question in Chicago

Everybody in Chicago is trying to help solve its educational problems. This is at once a source of hope and confusion; of hope, because out of a multitude of counsel will come wisdom; of confusion, because in the babble of the masses there is apt to be some darkening of counsel "by words without knowledge."

The people of Chicago at this time are not to be satisfied by merely quelling the riot; when peace does come it will be because order has been established through the recognition of some new, or at least some more satisfactory, principles of school management.

A Notable Banquet

At a recent banquet, the Merchants' Club took a hand in the discussion by securing some speakers from Boston, New York, and St. Louis who, as men interested in the public-school system, perhaps more strongly from the administrative side, told how educational affairs are managed in their respective cities. Of the addresses given, that by President Butler, of Columbia University, was most noteworthy, not only because of the speaker's large experience in shaping the educational affairs of a great city, but also because of the specific application of his remarks to the situation in Chicago. Concerning many of the points in his speech there can be no serious difference of opinion. But few thinking people will dispute his statement as to a school board's function which is found in the following quotation from his speech:

Dr. Butler's Ideas

"The sole business of the board is to administer the finances and choose the best officer procurable to carry out a high educational policy. If it goes farther than that, it will get into deep water. The work of the board is to legislate and supervise; when it begins to execute, then somebody will have to leave.

"Given a representative board of the best citizens you can get, citizens of common-sense and high-mindedness, the highest function they can perform is to choose an individual who can

be the guide and inspiration of the public-school system. I say guide and inspiration because I hold ideas different from some others as to the superintendent of public schools. The best school system in America should have a big, strong, vigorous personality at its head, and you must create a big office to have a big personality in it.

"The superintendent should have a satisfactory salary. He is not a clerk to be brow-beaten and bullied, but a professional officer, representing cultural forces in your community at work upon the minds of the youth of the next generation. There is no man too great to be superintendent of the schools of Chicago."

A Discretionary Board

It is doubtful if any "representative board of the best citizens" would ever wish to assume any other functions than those described by Dr. Butler, did not circumstances of unusual character force other matters upon them in their high capacity as a court of last appeal. The really best board of education, therefore, is one made up "of the best citizens you can get," who are willing, as a last resort, to ignore the limitations of their duties as fixed by a theory spun out of academic discussion, and who will carefully consider in a generous and impartial manner new duties which are born of new occasions. Nothing having the rapid expansive growth of our public-school system can be governed wholly by precedents.

The Real Cause of Trouble

Dr. Butler did not reach, in his remarks, the real cause of discontent in this city, and hence he failed to accomplish as much as one could have wished. He dwelt mainly, in a critical manner, upon the present attitude and work of the Board of Education, failing to recognize that this is merely the necessary result of a deep-seated cause. This cause lies in a profound dissatisfaction on the part of a large number of teachers with the administration of the school system. In order, therefore, to have made the most of his opportunity, he should have dealt with the whole problem in a fair and an impartial manner. He, in common with the other speakers, made for the thousandth time the ancient blunder of treating the teaching force as a negligible factor. The dissatisfaction now existing, of course, cannot be said to be universal among the teachers and

principals, if one chooses to make a count. That it does exist, though, among so large a number, and among so many whose motives must be respected, gives it a tremendous significance, which no one who attempts to grapple with the situation should overlook. The movement toward a better state of things in school affairs has been of slow growth, and it has developed from many and varied sources. It is the acme of narrowness to charge all the present difficulties in school matters against superintendents and boards of education. They have been the victims as often, perhaps, as the cause of the trouble that is now in an acute stage. Broadly speaking, it is the result of a lack of knowledge on the part of everybody, teachers as well as others, as to how a common-school system should be managed in order to keep pace with the unparalleled growth of the city. The more thoroughly one realizes his own ignorance as to how this should have been done, or as to what are the right things to do in the present crisis, the more humble he is likely to be in offering his advice. From the vantage-ground of the present one can see that in the past the mistakes have been pretty evenly distributed among all of those who took part in managing the schools. There is a great outcry for an administration of the schools on business principles. Yet, it is to boards with business ideas, probably, that Chicago owes the loss of her almost priceless public lands that were intended to support the schools. The men who composed those short-sighted boards were the business ancestors of the Merchants' Club. One cannot believe that they were all thieves or all dishonest. They simply failed to comprehend Chicago then, as the future will likely show that the Merchants' Club fails to comprehend it at the present time. People simply make mistakes; that's all there is to it.

Whose Fault?

The real educational question before Chicago is this: How can a village-school system of administration which is successful with a couple of hundred of children, half a dozen teachers, and a principal be modified so as to work well in a city with some hundreds of thousands of children, half a dozen thousand teachers, and

Question at Issue

a superintendent? Chicago is operated today under the village system, with this important difference: In the village, while there is, in form, a one-man power, the fact that he is in close personal contact with the work of each teacher makes it both easy and natural for him to take the interests of all carefully into account. The administration is essentially democratic. In the large city system the superintendent's sympathetic contact with the teacher is wanting: he makes up his mind without this knowledge, and the scheme becomes essentially autocratic. The gist of the Chicago problem is simply how to supply effectively this missing link between the teachers' interests and the superintendent's powers. If the speakers before the Merchants' Club had addressed themselves to this point, they would, at least, have had the merit of speaking upon the question at issue.

Overgrown Village System

The most feasible plan for uniting the efforts and unifying the interests of the superintendent and teachers would seem to be, then, some form of organized representation. If this were properly worked out, every other difficulty in the case would be put upon "its passage" toward solution. People generally seem to have the idea that teachers desire such an arrangement because they want to drag things to their ruin. Some teachers, indeed, may be possessed with this idea; but the majority are fair-minded and do not have such notions at all. They would be wholly satisfied if they could but get freely and directly to the superintendent, before he acts, a statement of what they believe to be for the best interests of the schools. If this could be done officially through regularly organized channels, in the end, it would be sufficient. There is nothing—there can be nothing—in such a plan of administration to prevent a superintendent from being just the kind of a man Dr. Butler depicted—one "who can be the guide and inspiration of the public-school system." There is nothing in the operation of such a plan—there can be nothing in it—that will interfere with the initiative or proper authority of "the big, strong, vigorous personality" which he says a superintendent should have. Dr. Butler told the Merchants'

Representation Needed

Club to create a big office for a big personality; this is inverting the process. A personality with strength and breadth enough to grasp the situation from the side of the teachers as well as from the side of the public will make for itself an office larger than anything the Merchants' Club has yet dreamed of. A personality of the right kind will have no difficulty about his place.

In stating the functions of a school board, none of the speakers seemed to think that its duties need go farther than the election of a "big, vigorous personality" who by his own methods should "lick" the teaching force into "shape." Not only the teachers, but also, it is believed, the sober-minded element of the community at large, will adjudge Dr. Butler a bit harsh when he says in his address:

Rather Harsh

"If I were a member of your school board, I would do my best to have adopted a by-law which would remove from the school service any teacher who affiliates himself or herself with a labor organization. If I were a member of your charter convention, I would have a vote and a roll-call on that question in the charter convention." These sentiments were received with "overwhelming applause."

Why Teachers Organized

Careful inquiry, however, into the origin and history of the teachers' organizations in this city will not justify either the feeling of the speaker or the enthusiasm of the audience. It is plain history, so recent that everybody knows it, that this organization of teachers and its affiliations grew up only when, and simply and solely because, the great corporations, including some of Chicago's merchant princes, so persistently and so ravenously robbed the school treasury that neither the "big, vigorous personality" of the superintendent, nor the school board, nor anybody else in power could save the schools from what seemed to be utter demoralization, if not ruin. Then the common teachers—to their eternal honor be it said—rose in their righteous wrath, organized and beat the wolves off, and saved the schools to the people. Upon the necessity and the propriety of such an organization, the teachers themselves will heartily support any demand for a roll-call in the charter convention. Since Dr. Butler chose

to deal specifically with Chicago conditions, it is a matter of regret that he did not give due credit to what the teachers have actually accomplished against tremendous odds.

Pursuing his subject with frightful logic, he said: "If the teachers of the public schools are to be organized, why not the firemen? If the firemen are to organize, why not the police? If the police, why not the army?" To all of this the straight and obvious reply is that, long before they are subjected to the same humiliating conditions that beset the teachers four or five years ago, the firemen WILL organize; and so will the policemen, and finally so will the army! That is history; read it in the past in English, or read it in the present in Russian. The principle of representation in this country and generally in this age is incontrovertible. The theory that the people have a right to create a body of public servants who shall be denied an effective voice in the internal management of their own affairs, either directly or through their own properly accredited representatives, is out of date. This is the crux of the whole matter. The six thousand teachers of Chicago have grown up. They have got past the point where they will submit to a "big, strong, vigorous personality" who seeks to "guide" and "inspire" the school system with a club. They are not hirelings, applying Dr. Butler's apotheosis of the superintendent, to be browbeaten and bullied, but professional ladies and gentlemen representing cultural forces in the community at work upon the minds of the youth of the next generation. The present struggle should in no wise be construed as being a war upon the legitimate legislative functions of the Board of Education or upon the proper executive functions of the superintendent or upon the rights of either to any initiative. It represents solely an effort on the part of the teachers to secure a voice in the educational counsels of the city which their close relations to the children and their practical knowledge of the needs of the schools may justify. They should have the right and the power to initiate and to recommend, by officially established means, legislation or any-

This is Disturbing

Principle of Representation

No Conflict of Functions

thing else to either the superintendent or board or both that may in the judgment of the teachers seem to be wise. This is all that is needed at present to calm the intolerable turmoil and to start the school system on the road toward a safe, sane, and conservative management. The details of such a plan of administration will, of course, be numbered by multitudes that no one can foresee. In meeting these, time will develop wisdom, and wisdom will beget tolerance and patience, which alone are the sureties of progress and peace. W. S. J.

NOTE.—Since writing the foregoing editorial notes, and as we go to press, the copy of a report has been received which has been prepared by a subcommittee of the Board of Education. This report, somewhat abridged, is printed elsewhere in this issue. We are glad to submit it to the teachers of the country as being, perhaps, the most comprehensive and intelligent plan yet proposed anywhere which provides for a representation of the teachers in educational matters. The report is so clearly in line with the thought of the editorial, not only in this issue, but also in former numbers of the *Elementary School Teacher* (see the numbers for March, 1905, p. 439, and January, 1906, p. 265), that we are glad to make space for it. It deserves the closest study on the part of all the friends of public education. [THE EDITORS.]

BOOK REVIEWS

The School and Its Life. By CHARLES B. GILBERT. New York and Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co. Pp. 259.

The above volume is a suggestive, disconnected, but not unrelated group of twenty-four short essays on subjects which are sure to be uppermost, at one time or another, in the experience of every school superintendent. The fact that the book lacks continuity diminishes its value, but the treatment of some subjects —e. g., chapter xv, of the judging and rating of teachers—shows a grasp of the real situation and a breadth of vision born only of real contact with a great system of schools. The benefits of co-operation applied to parent, teacher, and pupil are clearly shown.

Some of the strongest chapters in the book discuss the superintendent, his relations with teachers, and his social position in the community. If he is the right man in the right place, he can practically dominate the situation. If he cannot dominate the situation, nor secure enough power to make the board follow his leadership, he is not the man for the place. No system can be devised which can make a strong, successful man out of a weak one.

Mothers' clubs, parents' associations, and such efforts are commended as means of securing common, desirable information, and keeping the schools democratic. The last chapter sets forth "centralization of schools," elective or appointive boards, large or small boards of education, tenure of office for superintendents and teachers; the final test of all being the welfare of the individual children in schools.

J. STANLEY BROWN